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Young people move from rural to urban areas for lack of educational and employment opportunity. Nonurban junior colleges, by correcting these lacks, may help to stem this migration--in spite of a shortabe of faculty, funds, and space. Among their unique problems are: (1) the region often depends on a single industry; (2) students must travel farther to school or pay for housing; (3) with less vocational guidance, students are unaware of broader opportunities; (4) faculty is hard to hire because of lower pay and distance from city amenities; (5) families have little income and less interest in continuing education; (6) the area has a meager tax base. These factors combine to limit the comprehensiveness of the rural college. Of the 600 rural colleges, 40% are in population centers of 10,000 or less, with limited chances for employment. Transfer programs vary little; enrollment in agriculture and natural resources is growing; the most popular courses are business, physical science, health, trades, and industry. This report discusses the importance of lay advisory committees (general and occupational), to develop community interest and emphasizes the necessity for more counseling in the choice of an occupation and its course requirements. The college's community services must include not only the usual culture and recreation programs, but also such less common services as soil analysis and commercial consultation help. The rural college needs more research on student characteristics and its own unique role, according to its resources. (HH)

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100,000

and under Occupational Education in The Rural Community Junior College

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR COLLEGES - 1315 SIXTEENTH STREET, N.W., WASHINGTON, D.C. 20036

JC 680 448

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FOREWORD

This publication was directed by the Occupational Education Project of the American Association of Junior Colleges. The project expresses the Association's deep interest in providing guidance to junior colleges involved in the development of occupational education curriculums. 100,000 and Under *seeks to provide guidelines and advice along with a general overview of occupational education in community junior colleges recognized as rural.*

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INTRODUCTION

The wheel that squeaks gets the grease. The squeaky wheels today are our metropolitan areas. The nation's interest and resources are being directed toward the problems of the inner city.

AAJC itself has directed program and funds to the urban colleges to help solve the problems of the metroplex, yet 600 of the nation's 1,000 community junior colleges are nonurban, being located in areas of 100,000 and under. Also, one-fourth of all public community junior colleges have enrollments of less than 600 students. The median enrollment for all public community colleges in the United States is about 1,500 students. Only 21 per cent of the community junior colleges enroll over 3,000 students.

This realization that nonurban or rural community junior colleges constitute 60 per cent of the community junior colleges in the nation, caused officers of the AAJC to ask, "What about the rural junior colleges? How are they doing? Are they developing significant occupational education programs? What are their problems? How may we help?"

Thus, was created the AAJC national advisory committee on rural community junior colleges. Members of the committee representing the rural community junior colleges of our nation met together several times to study and discuss their area of interest. For firsthand information, they turned to the men who administer the rural community junior colleges.

The title 100,000 and Under *was selected to describe the nonurban community junior colleges—the colleges not concerned with problems of the inner city, but working in the smaller cities, towns, and villages. Some colleges included in this report have but few characteristics in common with the class of rural community junior colleges. Others, meeting all of the committee's criteria for rural colleges, did not consider themselves "rural." All are working to extend the higher education opportunity.*

Several have contributed to this booklet. One of the committee was selected to put it together.

We hope those of you now operating the rural community junior colleges, as well as those contemplating the establishment of such, will find the materials helpful and of interest.

The rural wheels may not be squeaking, but they are democratizing higher education by carrying it to every small city, village, and hamlet.

George L. Hall, President
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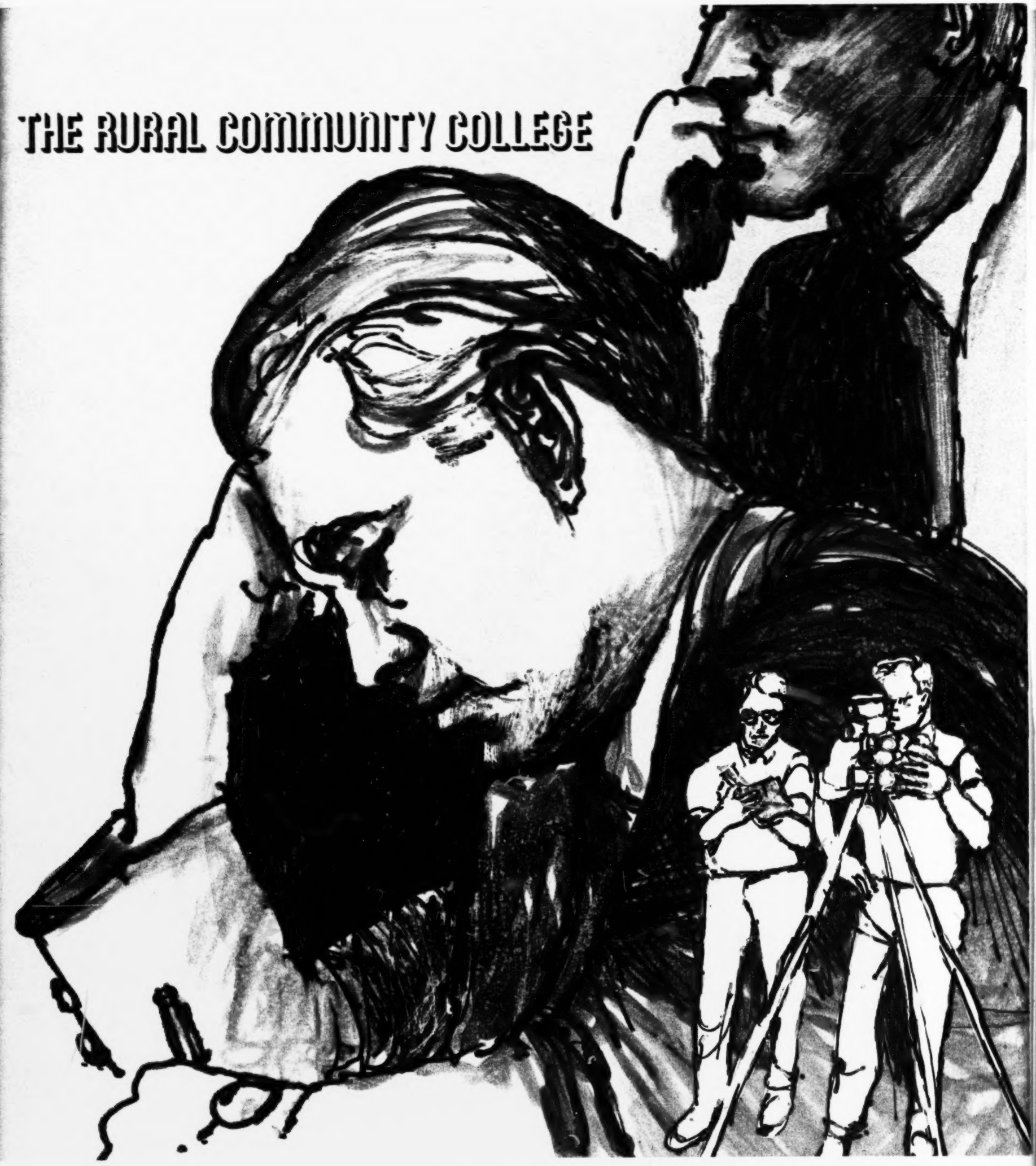
THE RURAL COMMUNITY COLLEGE



America's contribution to higher education

Community junior colleges represent a unique development in American education. The first two-year colleges were established as extensions of existing secondary school systems and were created to enable students to earn some college credits while they remained at home where expenses were lower and where academic requirements were less demanding.

Although founded at the turn of the century, the major growth of junior college education occurred after World War II when the federal government made it possible for returning veterans to attend college at government expense. Many of the GI's came to the junior colleges to sample higher education; other students who came, lacked the academic ability or interest to pursue a four-year program as offered at the universities, and they sought a different kind of higher education. Many of the new students wanted specific education, occupationally oriented. The junior colleges, which had earlier ignored the vocations and technologies, rushed to build shops, labs, and special facilities to teach occupational educational programs.

At about the time these changes were occurring, the descriptive term "community college" came into use. The term was to indicate that the junior college had matured and was now serving most, if not all legitimate post-high school needs of the people in the community service area.

The community junior college attempts to provide for the educational needs in the geographical community and educational needs of the citizens residing in that service area. The community junior college has become an educational center for both urban and rural populations, and provides a catalytic and unifying concept of education for growth and maturity of all citizens.

Initially, the junior colleges had their beginnings in villages and small towns, and were not found in metropolitan areas. Except for the State of California, where junior colleges were first established, the older junior colleges throughout the nation still tend to have rather small enrollments. The recently established community junior colleges are much larger.

A group of twenty urban public community junior colleges selected at random showed an average enrollment of 7,400 students. Fourteen of these colleges were under ten years of age, while eight were established within the last five years. Regardless of size, all public community junior colleges adopt these basic objectives which can be stated in a variety of ways:

1. The first two years of university education
2. Occupational education curriculums and courses in keeping with employment needs of the service area, matched with the interest and ability of the population. It should be noted here that "service area" is defined differently by the different colleges
3. Community services which include cultural and recreational activities
4. General education
5. Counseling services to students and other appropriate members of the community.

The popularity of the junior college, rural or urban, arises from its multiplicity of services. It has something for almost everyone. The two-year colleges serve the various community interests. The general public attends free concerts, lectures, athletic events, plays, short courses, open houses, exhibits, livestock shows, and various other activities of interest to the people which the college serves.

Urban and rural junior colleges are together in the university parallel courses they offer. In occupational education, they show unique differences.

The rural setting

More than two-thirds of the population in the United States live on about 2 per cent of the land, while one-third lives on the remainder. The out-migration from rural areas to metropolitan areas is approximately a million persons a year. It is estimated that if this trend continues for a few years, most of the people will be crowded onto a small part of the land area of the country with the rural areas becoming population vacuums.

State and federal agencies and organizations today appear strongly attracted to the problems of the inner city. Numerous programs of assistance are available to the city poor, yet, estimates reveal that one-third of all *rural* Americans live in poverty—nearly one-half of all impoverished Americans.

The effect of poverty upon children may be more debilitating in a rural area than in an urban area. According to Walter G. Daniels [1]* some of the differences in background of rural and urban disadvantaged youths are:

1. Education of parents is lower in rural areas
2. Family income is lower in rural areas
3. The isolation of rural areas leads to a lack of cultural stimulation
4. The decline of population in rural areas affects welfare services, social, economic, and educational opportunities
5. Marriage usually occurs at an earlier age in the rural areas.

Poverty knows no geographical bounds; rural poverty may be brought about by the closing of coal mines, decrease in demand of a product, or decline in other economic advantages. It exists where farmland is poor or where the small city has not maintained a competitive position. The disadvantaged child in the nonurban setting generally has a different set of communication symbols from the metropolitan youth, and his handicaps tend to grow during the school years so that he is often a dropout because few employment opportunities exist at the individual's level and there is little motivation to obtain an education.

The rural family is often penalized in respect to higher education as geography is a major factor in determining whether a person can go to college. An examination of the location of homes of students who attend college indicates that in most cases the student body is localized. Studies of community colleges indicate that enrollments decline when potential students reside more than 15 miles from the campus, and in most cases it becomes practically nonexistent after 50 miles. There is also conclusive evidence that the percentage of high school graduates who continue their education is much greater in areas where community colleges are located than in those areas which lack such institutions. The community junior college has the greatest drawing power of all types of higher institutions. In a recent statewide study, it was revealed that 48 per cent of the students enrolled in Florida's community colleges reported that they attended a particular community college because of its proximity to their homes. In rural America, the community junior college becomes the educational and cultural center of the community.

There are indications that many of the urban residents would like to return to the nonurban areas, providing such services as police and fire protection, hospitals, libraries, employment, and education were available. Herein may lie the outstanding contribution of the rural junior college. The rural community junior college may serve rural America in checking the movement to the cities. The two most important reasons for the movement of young people from the rural to the urban areas are: (1) lack of educational opportunities, and (2) lack of suitable employment opportunities. *The community junior colleges may be most influential in providing these basic needs and requirements.* Certainly, major educational developments are needed to make the rural areas more viable and attractive. This is the opportunity and the challenge for the nonurban community college. Community colleges may help to stem, or possibly reverse the urban-bound movement.

The Role of the Rural Community Junior College

The community junior college is America's attempt to democratize higher education by extending opportunity to all. This concept is undergirded by three basic assumptions: (a) education is necessary for the maintenance of a democracy, (b) education is essential for the improvement of society, and (c) education helps to equalize opportunity for all [2]. It is a

*Figures in brackets refer to entries in the bibliography.

common ideal that two years of higher education should be available to all high school graduates.

Availability of post-high school education should be coupled with a comprehensive selection of curriculums to be a truly democratic approach to education. A broadening of the curriculum is especially important for the college which admits all comers of varying abilities and interests. When the college is not located in a large city and is dealing with only a few hundred students, it will be difficult to provide a variety of programs.

Problems unique to the rural community college

The nonurban community junior college is often located in an area based on a single industry such as mining or agriculture. Industry, unrelated to agriculture, is generally at a minimum. Population density tends to be low, or the population is declining. Communications are stretched in these areas, and there is not the cohesive student body one would expect in the urban area. Students are forced to travel greater distances to college and may be housed on campus or in the community in private homes, reflecting higher education costs to the rural students.

It is assumed that students differ too. In general, they tend to know less of existing opportunities coming from high schools which are less comprehensive. Faculty are more difficult to recruit and hold. Costs are proportionately higher.

The rural community junior college with fewer students and smaller class size may be more effective in achieving instructional objectives—student achievement in small classes is likely to be superior to that in large classes. Recent studies [2] report large classes about equal to smaller classes in course content, but inferior in achieving other objectives

The power structure of the society within the nonurban college district may involve fewer people. Also, there is the attitude on the part of the rural people to send their children away to college. The rural areas, too, are characterized by smaller family income and interest in continuing education. There is generally an imbalance of male students while the employment opportunities are limited in number and scope.

Occupational programs help the rural student

Occupational education programs help to prepare students for specific employment, if not in the immediate community, elsewhere. Occupational programs are a vital part of any comprehensive nonurban community junior college. If occupational education is initiated as part of the total junior college program, a fundamental commitment must be made by the top administration. Emphasis must be placed upon the individual. Less emphasis must be placed on manpower as an economic resource and more on employment as a source of income and status for workers.

For effective occupational education in the rural community junior college, occupational education programs must be current. That is, they must be up to date in providing occupational opportunities for real jobs that currently exist in the world of work. In addition, the occupational training division in the community junior college must recognize its total responsibility for the student, for the student's education and eventual placement on an appropriate job.

Advantages of urban environment

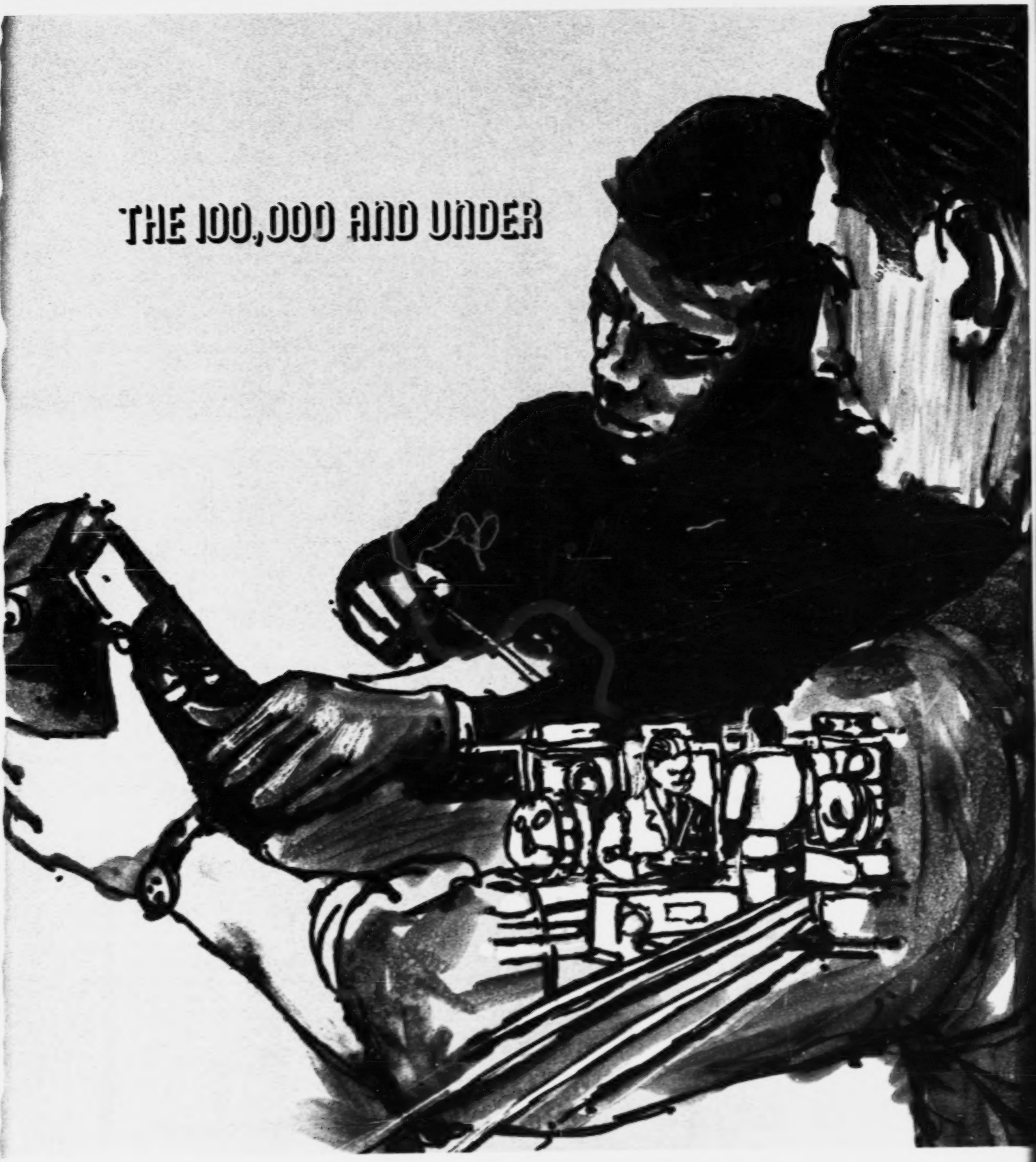
The urban setting generally provides more part-time jobs for students and provides a greater immediate job placement potential for program graduates. Teachers, especially part-time, are readily available in urban centers.

The urban setting generally provides a potential for program graduates. Teachers, especially part-time, are readily available in urban centers.

The urban setting generally provides a more substantial tax base and, hence, greater financial support. Further, in the urban area there generally exists a greater variety of institutions into which the community junior college transfer student may continue his education.

The community junior college in the rural setting must, however, provide essentially the same kinds of opportunities to its rural clientele that the urban junior college provides. Because the rural educational climate provides fewer of the considerations previously mentioned, program planning is unique in the rural areas.

THE 100,000 AND UNDER



*The rural community junior colleges**

There are about 600 rural or nonurban community junior colleges in the United States in communities of 100,000 or less. They constitute about two-thirds of the total number of junior colleges. The public rural junior colleges outnumber the private colleges four to one. Forty per cent of the rural junior colleges are located in population centers of 10,000 and less. The college presidents report that the population is increasing where the rural colleges are located, although sixteen per cent are remaining constant, or population is decreasing. Property values tend to follow population trends. In communities where population is constant or declining, we find property values tend to decline also.

About one in four rural community junior colleges are in communities dominated by a single industry, such as agriculture or mining, although 60 per cent say this does not describe their area. A far greater number of the rural junior colleges do describe limited employment opportunities for their youth; this applies to full and part-time employment. For instance, six out of every ten rural community junior colleges cite limited employment. The colleges tend to be small: 68 per cent of the rural junior colleges enroll 1,000 full-time equivalent students, or less.

Many of the rural junior colleges provide on-campus housing for students. About 40 per cent report that they house students ranging in accommodations from 20 to 944. The median is 210 students. About two-thirds give assistance to their out-of-town students in helping locate places to live in the community and nearly 20 per cent of the colleges provide bus transportation from the population centers to the campus.

Educational programs at rural junior colleges

It may be assumed that the colleges offer the usual transfer courses. However, the colleges differ considerably in the occupational programs made available.

It was assumed that in population densities of 100,000 and under, the community junior college programs in agriculture and natural resources would be highly featured. However, a study (Appendix A) revealed that, while courses in agriculture and natural resources are on the increase, courses in business, physical science occupations, health, trades, and industry are more popular.

A report issued by the National Research Council (Table 1, page 10) shows a substantial increase in the number of institutions, programs, and students enrolled in technical education programs in agriculture and natural resources.

Office occupations lead all of the other occupational areas in popularity. In order of rank, measured by the number of colleges offering the programs, the curriculums range as follows:

1. Office occupations
2. Engineering and physical science-related occupations
3. Health occupations
4. Trade and industrial occupations
5. Distribution and marketing
6. Agriculture and related occupations
7. Home economics.

Office occupations are offered by 81 per cent. Approximately, 66 per cent of the rural junior colleges offer engineering and physical science-related occupations. Health, trade, and industrial occupations, marketing and distribution, and agriculture follow in order offered by the rural colleges. Home economics is offered by only one-third of the colleges, most reflecting very low enrollments.

Popularity of course

The responding colleges indicated enrollments in home economics ranging from 1 to 200. The median enrollment at the rural junior colleges for home economics is only 20. Had it not been for one college enrolling 200 and another 150 in home economics, the total would have been very low indeed. Many colleges showed total college enrollments in home economics of 3, 5, and 6!

Office occupations appeared as the Cinderella career program at rural junior colleges. The colleges reported a median enrollment of ninety in office occupations. Eight of every ten rural junior colleges offer courses in office occupations. It would appear safe for a new rural junior colledge to offer office education, but it should

*Please see Appendix A.

be very cautious about introducing work in home economics. Sound educational planning should govern such a decision.

Engineering and physical science-related occupations which ranked second in being offered by most rural junior colleges had a median enrollment of seventy. The paramedical group had a median enrollment of forty-five. Six of every ten colleges offer programs in the health field today, and many of those not offering curriculums in health, are now considering introducing such instruction next fall.

Courses under consideration for addition to the rural junior college curriculums next year, fall into the following order of popularity:

1. Health occupations
2. Distribution and marketing
3. Agriculture
4. Trades and industrial occupations
5. Home economics
6. Engineering and physical science-related occupations
7. Office occupations.

Rural junior colleges are spending an estimated average of $892 per student per year, exclusive of capital outlay. The range is from $400 to above $1200. The median for rural junior colleges is $900, and 36 per cent are spending $1000 or more per student per year.

Table 1. Present Status and Trends in Two-Year Technical Education Programs in Agriculture and Natural Resources by Kinds of Institutions [3]

ITEM	YEAR		PER CENT CHANGE	PER CENT OF TOTAL	
	1966–67	1967–68		1966–67	1967–68
NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS	137	181	+32%	100%	100%
Two-year	121	163	+35	88%	90%
Four-year	16	18	+13	12%	10%
NUMBER OF PROGRAMS	362	462	+27	100%	100%
Two-year	284	379	+33	78%	82%
Four-year	78	83	+ 6	22%	18%
NUMBER OF STUDENTS	10,338	13,665	+32	100%	100%
Two-year	8,088	11,008	+36	78%	81%
Four-year	2,250	2,657	+18	22%	19%

When per student operating costs for rural junior colleges are compared with like costs of urban-centered junior colleges, we see that the costs are very similar—the average urban annual cost per student is $943. There are more urban than rural community colleges that spend $1,000 and above per student per year; as 45 per cent of them report expenditures of above $100, compared with 36 per cent of the rural colleges.

Problems Facing America's Rural Community Junior Colleges

How to get enough money to meet the educational responsibilities is a problem most rural junior college presidents face. Increasing costs of salaries, rising costs of maintenance, and the expansion of costly occupational programs are problems facing boards and administrators.

The second most persistent problem facing the rural community junior college is staffing. Finding and holding qualified teachers and administrators in the market of rising salaries, with one new junior college coming on the scene each week, is a problem of major significance.

Many of the nation's rural junior colleges feel the shortage of instructional space. They cannot offer the same educational programs as they have no place to house them.

Urban community college presidents appear to have a different set of concerns (Appendix B). While the study revealed that they were spending more on a per student per year basis, unlike the rural colleges, they do not cite finances as the major problem.

Administrators of urban colleges seem beset with problems of policies and procedures, particularly, if they are part of a state system of community colleges. Communication with governing boards, faculty, staff and students are worrisome, time-consuming concerns. "Developing the means of getting effective faculty and student participation in appropriate issues and decisions," is the problem one president faced. Another president described what a number of urban college administrators observed as the problem—"maintaining a flexible developing institution with a community college philosophy and perpetuating a faculty morale under a state compulsory bargaining statute. Under the umbrella of compulsory collective bargaining, faculties tend to seek a comfortable, liberal arts, selective student body approach which tends to parrot those four-year institutions in which our faculty received their education or experience. With creativity and innovation comes a certain amount of pressure and insecurity. Faculties tend to exert pressure to develop master contracts for the protection of the status quo."

Seventy-five per cent of urban presidents cited problems of relationships—communication, as being most critical. Five of the twenty presidents listed concerns peculiar to large organizations as the most critical problem areas.

It is clear that problems facing urban administrators are different from those facing the presidents of rural junior colleges. However, some factors hold true for both: As a community college becomes large, communication becomes difficult. Personal relationships, staff relationships, faculty and student cooperation are areas of prime stress. At present, urban colleges face these more than rural colleges. The rural community junior college president is wondering how to get more money and where to find able faculty and staff. The urban president faces these problems too, but additionally, has the problems of bigness.

*Student Characteristics**

Students attending America's rural junior colleges tend to have less information concerning employment opportunities because occupational guidance is available to a much smaller degree. Communication lines, too, are stretched; consequently, the rural community junior college student is less well informed than his counterpart in the metropolitan college. In most other respects, however, there are few differences between the urban and nonurban junior college student. The urban students tend to be commuters while the rural junior college students are generally housed on campus or the college

*For this description of junior college students, liberal use was made of K. Patrica Cross's pamphlet *The Junior College Student: A Research Description* (reference number 4).

assists them in locating private housing in the community.

Much is known about the academic characteristics of community college students. Academic ability is well researched. We can state with reliable evidence that the mean score for students attending four-year colleges exceeds that of students attending two-year colleges. Also, two-year students tend to score higher as a group than high school graduates who do not go on to college. K. Patricia Cross [5] points out that the research behind these facts is national in scope and unanimous in its findings. In a study involving a 5 per cent nationwide sample consisting of 400,000 students, highly significant differences in ability were found among high school graduates who did not go on to college, those who entered the junior college, and those who entered four-year colleges. On everyone of fourteen measures of ability—ranging from reading comprehension, mathematics ability, and biology to vocabulary information, creativity, and abstract reasoning—a junior college group fell between four-year college and noncollege groups. These appeared somewhat more academically able than students who did not go on to college, but less able than the four-year college group.

Young people entering four-year colleges tend to cluster in the top third, academically, whereas, noncollege youth are likely to score in the lowest third. The junior college group has substantial numbers of students at all three levels. There is great variability of academic ability within each junior college and among the different colleges. Some junior colleges, for instance, have student bodies academically superior to the entering classes of the typical four-year college. Virtually all junior colleges have some individual students as academically able as any to be found in the four-year colleges. Students in junior colleges differ from students in senior colleges in many ways: They expect their future satisfaction to come from business and financial success. They have lower educational and occupational aspirations. They come from homes of lower socioeconomic status. They have a more practical orientation to college but may be less confident of their academic abilities.

In summary, community junior college students are individuals. They represent a cross section of the American community served by the college. They will return to the community and become the parents, technicians, businessmen, board members, public officials, and sports fans after they have completed their education. They are a mixture of full-time and part-time students with a very large number working while attending college. They are not accurately described as two-year college students; fully half will attend one year or less; a fourth will attend for more than two years.

Community junior college students differ from each other in vital statistics. About twice as many men as women are enrolled; modal age is 18–22, but significant numbers are adults seeking upgrading and enrichment. They are mostly single, but many are married, and some have children.

Although two-thirds hope to transfer to senior colleges, probably less than one-half of them actually will. This emphasizes the need for occupational preparation for the group that didn't make the transition to the senior college but *still* have no specific occupational preparation.

In vocational choices, many express fanciful choices, dictated more by status values than by real interests. A high proportion want to enter the professions. Many plan to enter business. A few women and many men hope to enter technical-level programs like electronics, but there are very few farmers, aviators, soldiers, and civil servants.

In abilities, most are average-record high school graduates. Modal test scores are above average for high school seniors, but below average for four-year college freshmen.

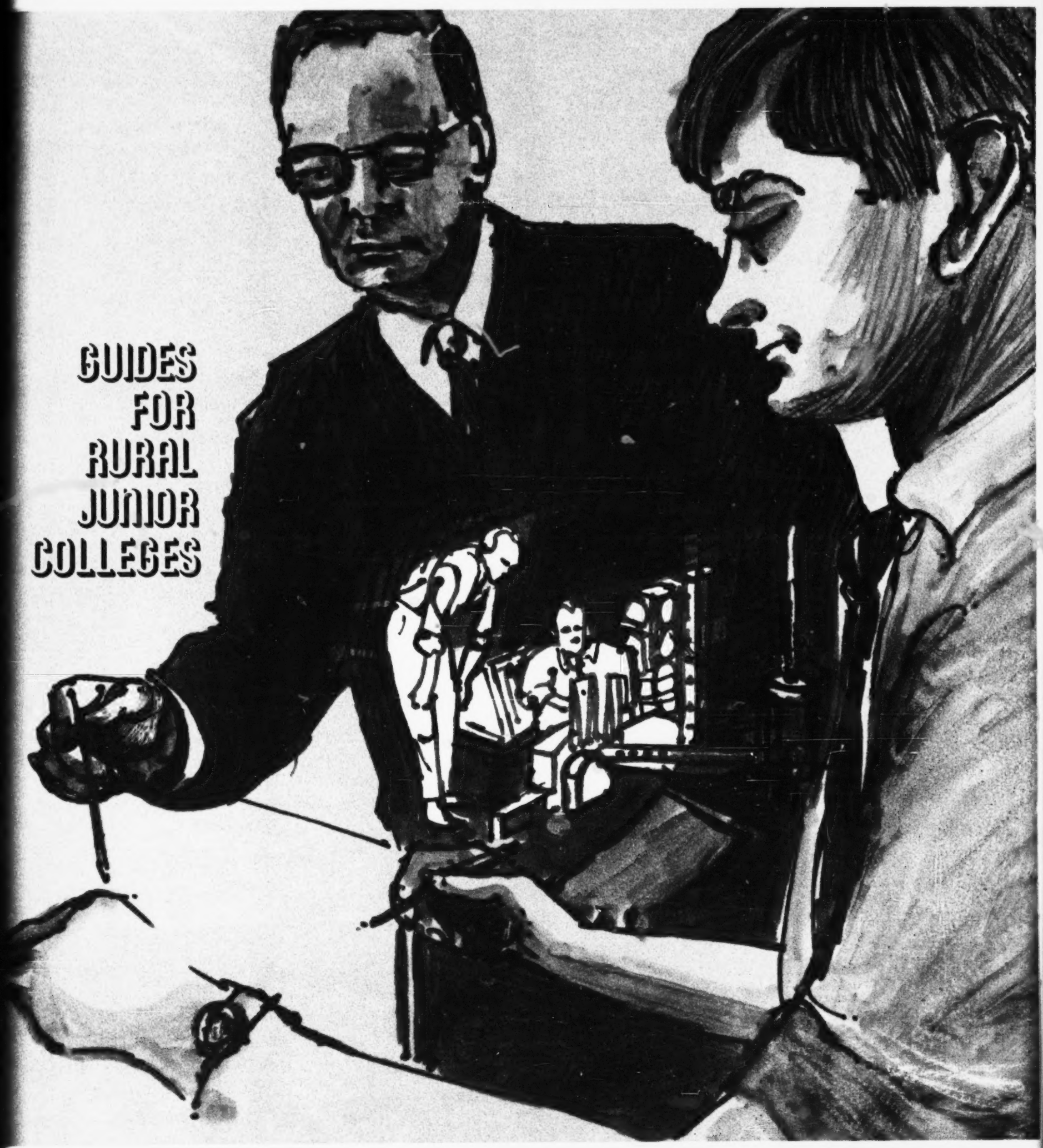
In family background, they come from each subculture of American society. All economic levels are represented, but most students are from middle-income homes.

Research is needed to understand and appreciate how the students in rural junior colleges differ from their peers in urban two-year colleges. It appears certain that they have less information and assistance in making a decision regarding a future career.

Relationship Between Father's Interest in Education Beyond High School and Student's Activity After High School (in percentages) [4:17]

Extent of Encouragement	Noncollege	Junior College	Four-year College
Wants me to go for sure	26	55	66
Encourages, but does not insist	27	26	20
Would like it, but thinks we can't afford it	5	1	1
Leaves it up to me	27	11	8
Doesn't want it, but doesn't say "no"	2	1	1
Won't let me go	1	0	0
Don't know	13	5	4
No response	7	4	2

GUIDES FOR RURAL JUNIOR COLLEGES



Facilities and Facts

The best advice that one can give a community contemplating a new community college campus, whether it be urban or rural, is to spend several hundred dollars and an equal number of hours visiting various community junior colleges across the nation. Trustees, architects, and administrators, traveling together, looking, listening, talking, thinking, can gain tremendously and their whole community benefits.

One college president who enjoyed such an experience with members of his governing board carried a tape recorder and camera as they visited. When the board member or their architect said, "See, this is what we need," the college president took pictures and recorded discussions concerning the special features of interest. This president today says, "This is the greatest thing that we did in preparing to build our community college!" Another college president who followed the visitation route said, "When you visit with a man who just built a college, he'll tell you what mistakes he made and then you can avoid the same ones."

The Educational Facilities Laboratory agreed with this idea when they underwrote the AAJC's Fly-in. The Fly-in brought together teams of individuals from sixteen community colleges that were in the early stages of planning and design. Each team consisted of a college administrator, a member of the board of directors of the college, and a representative of the architectural firm engaged in designing the campus. These key members of the planning team could compare notes and ideas on the spot. The schedule supported by EFL called for visits to nineteen college campuses and a school planning laboratory at Stanford University. The people on tour came from a variety of situations —small towns, urban centers, rural areas, suburban locations. The enthusiasm for the experience was great. Much note-taking, many brainstorming sessions, and the teams analyzed their observations at the end of each day.

From the AAJC publication, *The College Facilities Thing* [10] comes this list of gleanings from the Fly-in:

"If you can get land, it is the cheapest investment you can make. If you don't use it, you can sell it and make money."
"Don't use glass bricks. You will have to knock them out and put in concrete. They are fascinating to kids."
"Escalators cost no more than elevators and they move people faster."
"Location of college in a slum can pull the area up, but often people move to worse slums."
"Flexibility in a building is related to imagination. You can always find ways to make it more flexible. Look for dead space—use it."
"A building is nothing more than a machine. No one has designed such a machine for such a program."
"The time has come to cater to students and faculty—to lift morale."
"The buildings will turn their backs on the cold wind. It is convenient and comfortable so students will stay instead of going to the nearest beer joint."
"We were designing as we were building. It was a building-happening."
"The only movable wall we put in the college has never been moved."
"We will have 17,343 yards of carpeting."
"The cafeteria is more important as a learning center than the library. This is a learner-centered institution."
"Why do you isolate the faculty from the students by putting them in a tower?"
"You have got to be prepared for change."
"You need a living room—and a den—on a commuter-centered campus."
"Not buildings, but space; not space, but environments."
"Don't marry a space method, or make it a ritual, or a religion."
"We cannot afford the luxury of wasted space. There must be flexibility."

Planning Precepts

A campus, if it responds to educational demands is in a continuous state of change. In this fast-moving educational front, most of the changes concern physical growth. Orderly growth requires a framework or plan. Such a framework must have a degree of rigidity to assure continuity of purpose, visual order, and completeness at all stages of growth and

development. On the other hand, the framework must allow the necessary flexibility to permit the campus to be in tune with the times, educationally and architecturally. When function changes, form must change, at least internally.

Educational change is inevitable; therefore, the campus must change. But there should be change amid order; such order is assured, provided there is strict adherence to a set of well-established guidelines or planning precepts. The following precepts provide rigidity and flexibility without nullifying creative education or stultifying the architecture [5]:

1. Preserve the amenities of the natural environment. This should be done even at the sacrifice of functional efficiencies.
2. Give the college a focal point. This focal point might well be called "The Center," and actually be centrally located with easy, convenient public access.
3. Separate foot and wheel traffic. There should be an efficient, convenient flow of pedestrains with absolutely minimum conflict with vehicular routes. The inner-campus is an inner-sanctum, free from cars.
4. Form must allow function. Architectural form must have a high degree of adaptability.
5. The campus must grow organically. At each stage of development there must be visual completeness. Mechanical, electrical, structural aspects, walks, streets, parking should be planned for logical and efficient expansion.
6. Use the circulation potential. The campus circulation network should be an extension of future city or urban system. As the region becomes more urban in character, traffic problems on and about the campus will increase, requiring a continuous reexamination of the existing systems and exploration of better ways of moving people and their cars.
7. Respond to commuter needs. Give acknowledgement to the fact that this is a commuter college and nearly every student will have a car; there should be vehicular flow in and out of the campus with the least interference. Put the driver-student as close to his destination as possible.

The composite of these seven precepts is *the campus plan*. It represents a plan for action; it serves as guidelines to encourage creative architecture, not to standardize building form; it serves as a basis of judgment for making decisions and all subsequent development studies.

In planning the gross space needs, one can assume 140 square feet per student in occupational education programs and about 110 square feet per student in academic work. For instance, if there were an estimated 1,500 FTE and 40 per cent were to be in occupational programs, we would set it out as follows:

600 students at 140 square feet = 84,000 sq. ft.
900 students at 110 square feet = 99,000 sq. ft.

1,500 FTE ----------183,000 sq. ft.
(122 square feet per student)

Preliminary cost estimates for building could be arrived at by multiplying the total square footage by the going building rate. It must be understood that this is very rough and should serve only as an estimate.

In considering facility needs for rural junior colleges, the possibility of a mobile physical plant must not be overlooked. In state systems the rural youth may be well accommodated through mobile science labs at great savings to the taxpayers. Some elementary and secondary school districts have used mobility most effectively in meeting their exploding population.

The American Association of Junior Colleges maintains an office of facilities information. If you are contemplating a campus or a building, or even renovations, it would be well to contact the Director of Facilities Information, AAJC.

Work Experience and the Rural Community Junior College

As difficult as it may appear in a rural setting, no better insurance policy exists for the two-year college in meeting the training needs of students than the cooperative work-experience program. It is a sound and time-tested method of education. Work-study programs have been proving their value in that technical knowledge and personal growth can be developed effectively through actual on-the-job training. The opportunity to reinforce theory through participating in its application in business and

industry is a strong motivating force for students.

Cooperative work experience makes learning a pleasant and meaningful experience. Through work experience, youth develop personal initiative and responsibility. They learn to work with others in an adult world; they recognize the importance of desirable attitudes and acceptable behavior as they associate with fellow workers on the job. Probably no other learning procedure can rival cooperative work experience as a motivating factor for a student to achieve the goals he has set for himself.

Grant Venn [6], associate commissioner, Adult and Vocational Education, of the Office of Education, in addressing the 47th AAJC annual convention listed two objectives of cooperative work experience programs. First, they aim to provide opportunity for developing positive on-the-job personality characteristics. A new sense of responsibility toward a job will become apparent when a youth learns the important role work plays in the overall operation of the employing organization. He learns responsibility for completing assigned tasks within a reasonable amount of time and often ahead of fixed deadlines.

Second, cooperative work experience programs show the value of related classroom instruction as it specifically applies to the job. The youth participating learns quickly. The classroom work takes on new significance as the need for certain knowledge and skills becomes more apparent. It also may prove to be the most important incentive for many students.

On-the-job training experiences are basically for three purposes:

1. Beginning work experiences early in the curriculum provides occupational exploration.
2. Work experiences in the middle and latter part of the curriculum give the student the opportunity to test theory against practice and to teach skills which the institution feels are better learned on the job than in the classroom.
3. Experiences near graduation or immediately following it can be characterized as internships prior to entering professional practice in which the student makes his transition, under supervision, to the role of the employed worker.

In some curriculums, occupational experience programs are provided which are designed to teach skills and operational procedures which the institution does not, or cannot, teach effectively. Often, experiences are provided in complex, expensive facilities found in business and industry which an educational institution would be unable to duplicate. Business and industry tend to remain out front in the development and use of new practices, procedures, and equipment.

Determining the Need for Occupational Programs

The need for occupational programs may be assessed in terms of the local community college service area, the state, or regional needs. At times, even national needs may be considered. In each case, an occupational survey or an objective study should be accomplished so that one is not ill advised. "Windshield" research is not sufficient. Two common approaches to occupational surveys are: (1) the team-of-experts approach, and (2) the citizens' participation approach. In the former, the job is generally contracted to experts who move in and do the job. The latter approach is highly recommended. Laymen are involved, which often results in about the same kind of information the experts would deliver, but with the advantage of a highly stimulated lay-citizenry who now are ready and available to provide other services, such as serving on lay advisory committees.

In the rural community, an occupational committee should involve many people. The committees are formed, brought together, and acquainted with the proposed survey instrument or instruments. A pilot study may be recommended to perfect the technique and then the survey should actually be conducted to ascertain the occupational education needs. Personal visits are more productive than mailed questionnaires and should be used wherever possible. Follow-up should continue until the greatest percentage of return has been obtained. The

raw data may be tabulated by clerks and machine methods. The final data should be analyzed and interpreted by the committee, who should then be responsible for writing and editing their recommendations and findings.

AAJC or any one of the several universities throughout the nation that are working to prepare community college faculty or administrators, will probably have good advice on how to proceed with the formation and operation of a citizens' group to help determine career courses.

In the final analysis, the citizen committees should be able to answer such questions as: (1) Are there job opportunities for persons who will be concluding the training program? (2) Are there on-the-job or internship training opportunities available in the community? (3) The committee should complete the following: (a) identification of part-time teachers, guest lecturers, field trip opportunities in industry, (b) identification of potential members of the later-named advisory committee, (c) indication of the number of potential part-time or full-time students already employed in the industry who desire upgrading, (d) indication of the curriculum needs, comments made by managers, owners, personnel directors, and others in the industry who will help determine the types of programs and course offerings.

The occupational survey will reveal the need and the opportunity, but final determination will depend upon availability and interest of students, and the ability to staff and finance. If the rural junior college is part of the state system the matter of coordination with other educational organizations must be considered.

Provision must be made to keep occupational data alive. With the world's knowledge doubling each decade, change is the only certain thing.

The Use of Lay Advisory Committees*

Preparation for entry into our technological world of work has called for cooperative planning by industry and education. The nature of occupational change requires that educators, and particularly those who are charged with decision making, be kept informed of the current and anticipated skill needs of industry. Since the junior college is designed to meet so many needs, it has been found that lay advisory committees are essential. It is also clear that no single type of advisory committee can adequately serve to advise for all needs. There are, therefore, several types of advisory committees, each one designed to serve the college in a particular way. The two advisory committees commonly found working with colleges are described below.

Types of Advisory Committees [8] There are two major types of committees for the junior college which will be considered here: (1) general advisory committees, and (2) occupational advisory committees.

Our modern civilization is becoming increasingly complex. Leaders in government, business, industry, and education are looking to laymen and specialists for counsel in determining courses of action. The President of the United States has a cabinet and many special advisers to assist him to do the job of the chief executive; business and industry leaders have assistants and consultants who advise and guide them as policies and procedures are formulated; and college administrators have staffs of specialists who assist them in the administration of complex educational programs.

It has long been the contention of occupational educators that programs which provide for the widening spectrum of occupations should be organized and conducted with the advice and counsel of representative committees. There has never been a time in history when this need for guidance by educators was more pronounced; the pace of change is outstripping the capacity of the colleges to respond. Two-way communications between educators and other interests in the form of advisory committees are necessary in efficient, realistic program planning.

Definition of Advisory Committees A junior college occupational education advisory committee may be defined as a group of persons selected from the community to advise educators regarding occupational education programs.

*Material for this section was extracted from *The Role of the Advisory Committee in Occupational Education in the Junior College*, Albert J. Riendeau (reference 8).

The advisory committee is usually formally organized, and is appointed by proper authority for a definite term. In some situations, an informal, or "ad hoc" committee is used by educators for special purposes.

Two characteristics distinguish advisory committees: (1) they usually do not possess formal authority, and (2) members usually serve voluntarily without pay.

The General Advisory Committee The general advisory committee meets periodically, on a continuing basis, to review the total occupational education programs being offered in the community and to advise on new requirements and priorities. Meetings are generally concerned with problems pertaining to the development of the overall occupational program.

This committee is usually made up of leading members of the industrial, business, professional, labor, and educational organizations of the community. Since, for the most part, these people are accustomed to dealing with programs in general terms, their function is to provide advice in determining general policies and types of occupational education that are needed.

There may be occasions when resource staff from various educational organizations in the community should serve on the general advisory committee, depending upon the nature of the problems under consideration. In a multicampus district, the occupational education concerns of the entire junior college district, not just those of one college, are concerns of the general advisory committee.

The success of the advisory committee operation depends upon the stance taken by the director of occupational education. If he is interested in involving the advisory committee in occupational planning, he has a variety of techniques available for achieving effective industry-education cooperation. Some of these techniques are:

1. The general advisory committee can best perform its function if it has all of the available regional and local facts that might in some way affect the college programs.
2. Committee members should be given stimulating work to do—their achievements will be in direct relation to the demands made by the junior college.
3. Committee members should be given the problem, not the answer; they should be asked, not told.
4. There should be evidence that general advisory committee suggestions were received and carefully studied by the junior college administration.

The Occupational Advisory Committee Broadly stated, the function of the occupational advisory committee is to advise junior college administrators regarding instructional programs in specific trades, crafts, or occupations. This committee should be concerned with the particular occupational education area which it represents as it relates to the overall educational program. Some specific functions are that it:.

1. Serves as a communication channel between college and community occupational groups
2. Lists the specific skills and suggests related and technical information for the course
3. Recommends competent personnel from business and industry as potential instructors
4. Helps evaluate the program of instruction
5. Suggests ways for improving the public relations program at the junior college
6. Assists in recruiting, providing internships, and in placing qualified graduates in appropriate jobs
7. Keeps the college informed on changes in labor market, specific needs and surpluses
8. Provides means for the college to inform the community of occupational programs
9. Assesses program needs in terms of the entire community.

Depending upon the particular occupational education program, this advisory committee might meet monthly, or once a year. Most college program directors soon learn that individual members may be consulted, day or evening, should a problem arise.

Occupational Counseling in the Rural Junior College

The open-door college must have a very outstanding student personnel service with up-to-date occupational counseling available to all

students. Many students need help in reaching decisions and in correcting conditions that interfere with their success in classwork. The college counselor has a responsibility to provide this assistance.

Occupational choice is fundamental to many decisions of the student. It is estimated that perhaps half of the entering students from high school will have made a realistic and somewhat firm vocational choice. They are then in a position to plan their educational courses and stay with them. But the other half who are not so fortunate are going to need considerable help. In the rural junior college, many of these students coming from a smaller high school will not have sufficient information concerning employment opportunities and the various occupational or career choices. Many of the students will not yet have managed to develop a firm self-concept and to relate it to the career opportunity. The counselor can help these students interpret and accept information about themselves from high school work, job experience, and so forth. Additionally, he can provide information about the occupations and assist the student in gaining additional information from other instructors, from library sources, from people in the community. Often, after making the occupational choice, students still lack information on the educational requirements. Again the counselor should assist the student in developing long-term educational plans. These plans should include specific semester schedules, and help in planning for senior college if the college has an occupational program which transfers. In general, they should have a fairly good idea of exactly how the student is going to spend his time between now and occupational employment date.

Vocational choices of junior college students constitute a problem area. This is due in part to frequent changes in vocational choice and to the fact that many colleges are not providing good occupational education counseling. A national study [4] found that 25 per cent of junior college transfer students had not made a firm occupational choice by the time they entered junior college and 36 per cent changed their minds during the first two years. Knoell and Medsker reported [9] that one-fourth of students who later transferred to four-year colleges had not committed themselves to majors at the time they completed their work in junior colleges. Another one-fourth had changed their majors before transferring, but only 16 per cent changed their majors after entering four-year colleges.

Two-year college men tend to be interested in business (22%) and engineering (17%). For women the only field that amasses any sizeable number of candidates is teaching. Approximately 25 per cent of junior college women surveyed said that, as college freshmen, they planned to go into elementary or secondary education [4].

Between 70 and 75 per cent of junior college students say, as freshmen, that they intend to attain a bachelor's degree or more. These educational aspirations are unrealistically high, as about 25 per cent of all college students actually do obtain baccalaureate degrees.

It has been observed that the decision to go to college, in one way, defers the decision about an occupational future. A national study revealed that only 18 per cent of junior college students knew what they wanted to do, and said that they did not need help. Almost 75 per cent of them said they would like some help; 68 per cent of junior college students expressed a desire for help in developing good study techniques and 64 per cent wanted help with educational and vocational plans. Evidently, junior college students are ready and are seeking occupational education counseling, but it is also just as certain that, with few exceptions, this task is not well done at the community junior college.

There are many industry resources available to counselors. To a great extent, they are underutilized. Albert Thompson of Teachers College, Columbia University, in an unpublished report, stated that counselors may avail themselves of occupational information in various ways. Some of these are:

1. Publications: Employee handbooks, union contracts, job descriptions, company newspapers, employment circulars, and reports are all examples of occupational information publications.

2. Audiovisual aids: Company slides, films, tapes, and videotapes present jobs in picture form and,

hence, may be considered one step closer to reality.

3. Programmed instructional material: Program instruction books, workbooks, teaching machines, can give people an intellectual feel for portions of an occupation.

4. Computer-based systems: The computer-based systems Thompson has in mind include occupational information on a broad range of occupations, hence, differ considerably from the computerized personnel systems of industry.

5. Interviews with experts in industry: This category includes, in addition to interviews with experts and career days, visitations to educational institutions by company representatives for the purpose of getting presentations, teaching and conducting workshops.

6. Simulated situations and synthetically created work environments: These are not yet available to any extent in industry. Training techniques such as the in-basket, role-playing, and computerized business game, represent simulation of job circumstances that could be used for job information as well as for training.

7. Direct observation: Company visits, if not well planned, can be as misleading as career-day exposures. If the point is to provide general impressions of work environments and if a variety of common work categories is shown, they can be fine.

8. Directed exploratory experiences: Simulated and real work situations may be settings for sustained observations of behavior in a variety of job tasks.

9. On-the-job tryout: Part-time and temporary jobs, training programs, arrangements for students to get additional training provide excellent opportunities.

Community Services in the Rural Junior College

The term "community college," as indicated previously, actually describes a college that provides a broad variety of services to the surrounding area. Many community colleges claim no boundaries to their campuses but consider the entire community as their campus. In so doing, they accept the role and responsibility for a variety of services to the community.

The services provided often include a symphony orchestra, art exhibits, science days or science fairs for the public schools, community surveys, athletic contests, lecture series on important topics of the day, to such things as occupational guidance counseling of adults. In the case of rural community junior colleges, they may be the only higher education source available to the people in all walks of life. In such cases, a chemistry instructor is often asked to analyze water samples, while the biologist may identify certain insect life. The agriculture department may be called upon for soil analysis, and the business department may conduct an evaluation of sales methods in downtown stores. In the area of community involvement, one finds many bases for uncommon services and offerings as each community college reflects the unique characteristics and needs found in its own environmental setting. The services offered may indeed be limited only by the imagination of the people the college serves.

Institutional Research and the Rural Community Junior College

The Need for Research and Development – The community college program in a given community or state is likely to rise only as high as the research and development which support it. In like manner, there is a critical relationship between the educational output of a local rural community college and its own input of research and development. It is true that much of the research and development applying to community colleges originates and, in many cases, is completed outside the colleges. However, each local community college is responsible for bringing the results of all related research to bear on its unique problems. Furthermore, research is being and should be done by senior colleges, universities, and other research-oriented organizations in cooperation with local rural community colleges.

The urgent need for research on the rural community college is apparent to all concerned. Many journal articles, reports, conference summaries, and workshop recommendations

support this need. Actually, there appears to be little research on community colleges in general, and practically none dealing exclusively with the rural community college. One recent nationwide survey of institutional research on the community junior college indicated that fewer than 20 per cent of all community colleges have formally organized programs of institutional research. One might conclude that with the difficulty of locating, attracting, and keeping competent faculty and staff in rural areas, there would be an even lower percentage of the rural community colleges with formally organized research and development programs.

The Nature of Research and Development—Research may be seen as a way of critically thinking as well as a scientific method of planning and acting. It is concerned, not only with objective data, but also with values, ideals, standards, and purposes by which we consider the data. A great variety of techniques may be used in research and most of these are well suited to research efforts needed in rural community colleges. The four major methods or techniques of research are usually referred to as documentary (or historical), experimental, descriptive (the survey), and the case study.

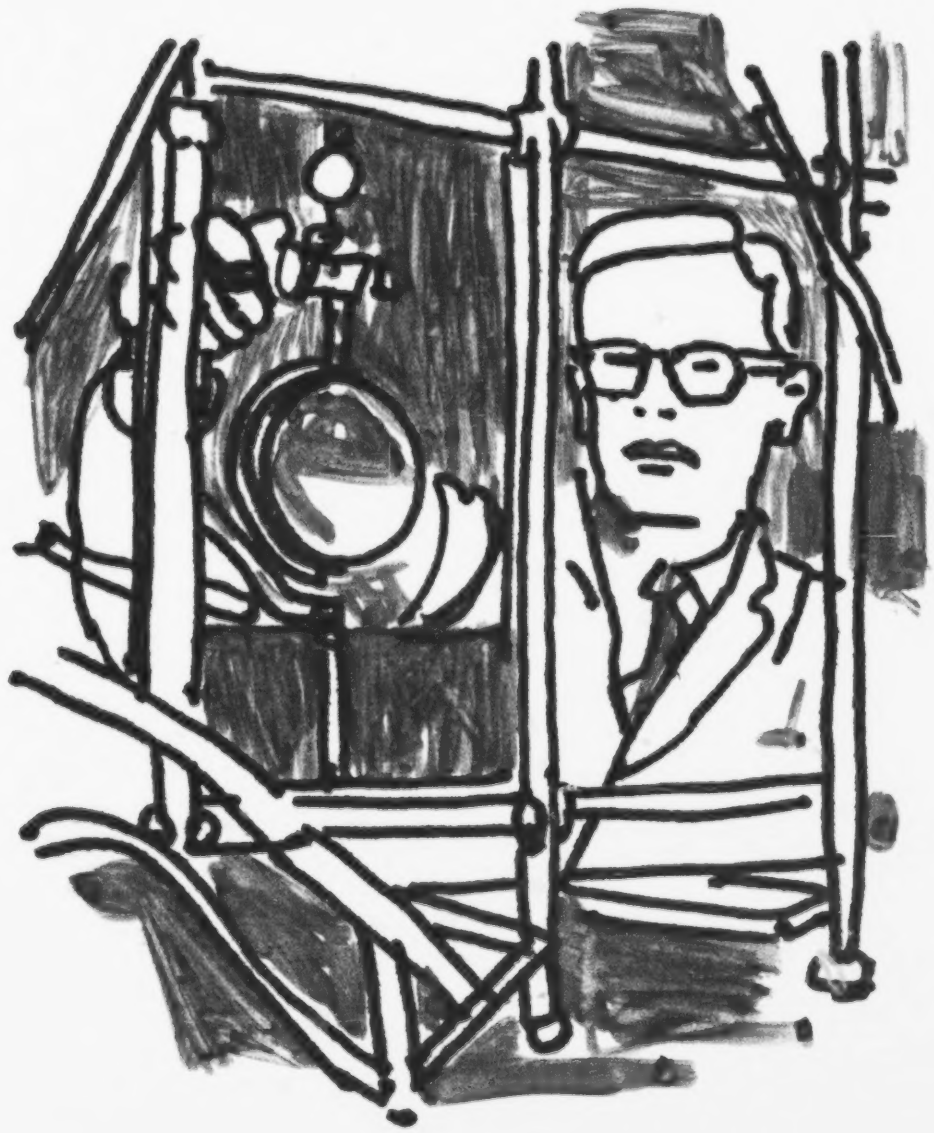
The Role of Rural Community Colleges in Research and Development—The rural community college should have at least two major roles in research and development: a unique role, and a cooperative role. By fulfilling its unique role, the rural college is likely to develop and conduct those studies which will be of greatest value in understanding its own organization in relation to the community, planning and promoting its own educational services, and evaluating its own programs and processes. Examples of such research might be student follow-up studies, occupational information, pilot curriculums, instructional practices, and community service studies.

The rural community college also has a cooperative role in research and development. Organizations with which cooperation is likely include senior colleges, universities, state administration and supervisory agencies, and business and industrial groups. Research and development creates useful education programs.

Possible Research and Development Projects With Which Rural Community Colleges Might Be Concerned—Several recent studies have dealt with needed research in community college education. One recent statewide study in California involved seventy-seven public colleges which were invited to participate in identifying problems and needs for research. From the responses of sixty-five colleges, a composite ranking was made. Of twenty-six research needs considered, the following ten were considered of most importance: (1) effectiveness and improvement of instruction; (2) promotion and dissemination of research and development; (3) student dropouts; (4) evaluation of instructional offerings; (5) financial support; (6) student characteristics; (7) preparation of instructors; (8) realistic student counseling; (9) faculty loads; (10) articulation with four-year colleges.

In a survey-type study in the state of Washington, respondents (faculty and administrators) identified thirty-eight critical problem areas needing research and development. Long-range planning needs in the community college were ranked as the problem with highest priority. A third study was concerned with student personnel programs. Four major areas were designated from which sixty-eight critical needs of research were identified: (1) the nature of the junior college climate as it relates to the achievement of student personnel objectives; (2) the significant characteristics of junior college students; (3) essential elements of a guidance program; and, (4) the staffing requirements for an effective student personnel organization.

Resources Needed for Research and Development in Rural Community Junior Colleges—If research and development in the rural community college is to be of real value, it must be supported by personnel, time, and money. Many community colleges have established a position of director of research and development and in most cases the person occupying the position has more than earned his salary during the first few weeks by tapping numerous sources of development funds for the institution. It is most important that the director of research and development be aggressive and well informed concerning potential sources of financing.



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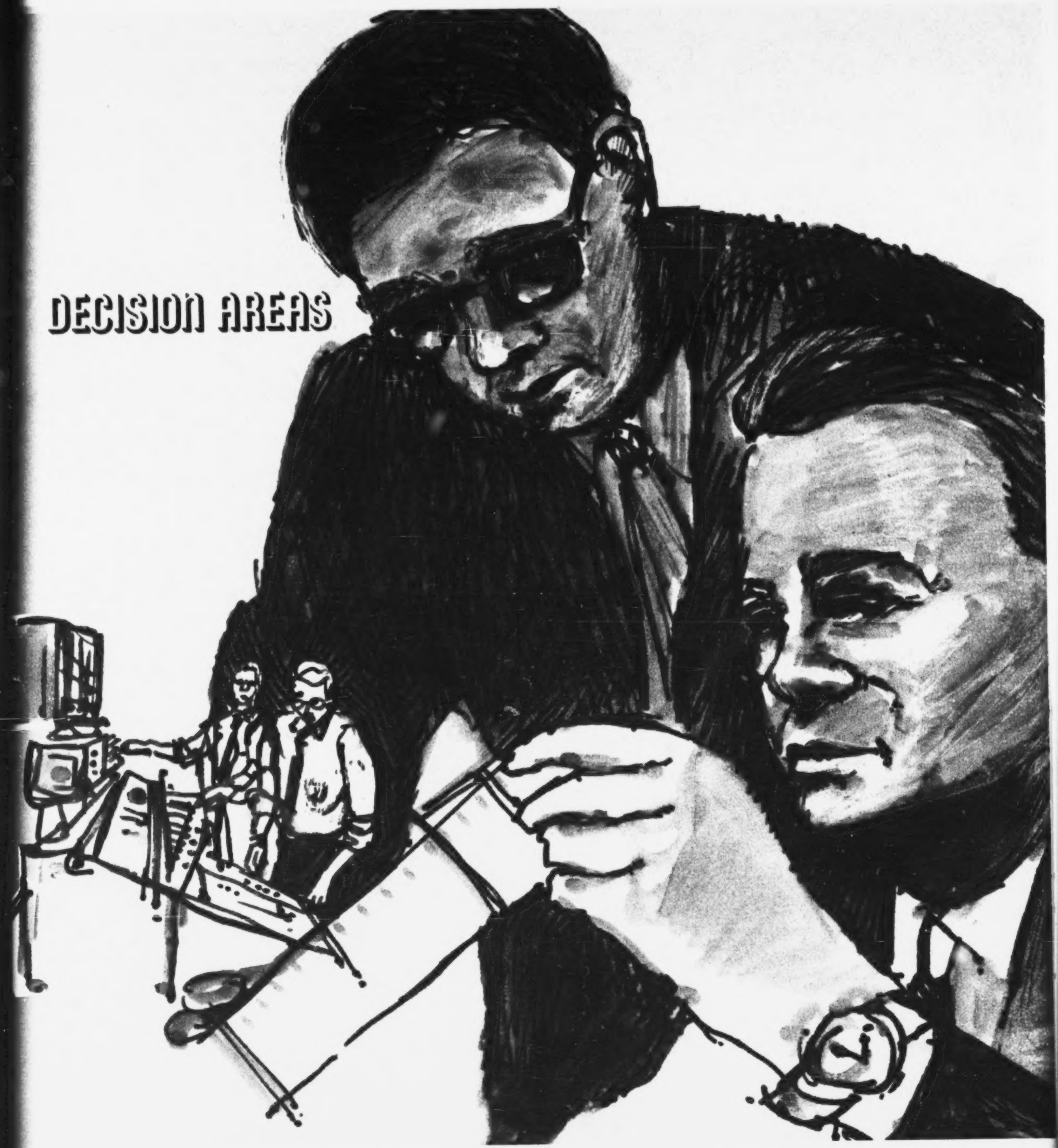

Comprehensiveness in the Rural Community Junior College

Public community junior colleges are wedded to the open-door policy. The rural junior colleges are no exception. But the non-selective admissions policy presents major problems for the rural colleges. When all are admitted, there must be a diversity of programs for all students, including those of low ability. Further, developmental courses which make sense are mandatory.

A national investigation [1] of curriculums and courses for low achievers in community junior colleges reported that, while 91 per cent of all community junior colleges follow the open-door policy, only 20 per cent have special programs for them. The conclusion is that more than two-thirds of the community junior colleges expect the low achievers to find something in the regular offerings.

In 1963, of the 182 million persons living in the United States, 19 per cent had given a different address the previous year. Medsker found that 27 per cent of men and 32 per cent of women had changed addresses four years after high school graduation [9]. There is every reason to believe that our high mobility rate among young adults will continue. Our reliance upon our colleges to educate for local needs must change. Rural communities must recognize that in preparing their youth for work, they are preparing many for jobs away from home. Sound educational programing must recognize the high rate of mobility.

The challenge to occupational education for disadvantaged rural America is the need for the rural junior colleges to provide occupational instruction to a greater variety of workers and potential workers than at present, and to provide for a greater diversity of individual need. The amount of comprehensiveness, however, for each rural junior college will have to be determined by that college. Given the determination of what would be ideal in terms of size, location, persons served, each college must develop a priority listing of what is possible or necessary.

Limitations of the ideal will be found in total population, amount of funds available, opportunity to cooperate with other colleges because of distances, and the availability of community resources with which to work (whether people, agencies, or things).

The determination of the ideal and limitation of what is possible for a given institution can be best be decided by the community. This is an excellent opportunity for the college to use an advisory committee.

Comprehensiveness can be increased by cooperation and coordination with nearby colleges. Each should carry a few good, sound programs able to pay their way, as against proliferation of many weak programs by each institution. Students should be able to attend where the program is given without restraint. This can be arranged through agreement among the colleges *before* programs are instituted and become hard to root out, even though they are financially unprofitable or insupportable. The elements of comprehensiveness can also be effected to some extent by sharing instructors and other resources with one or more other colleges.

Comprehensiveness in terms of types and numbers of programs offered can be increased through cooperation and coordination, with community resources, people, and agencies. Such organizations as the university extension service, cooperatives, certain businesses and corporations, city and county governments, libraries, facilities, and resources can make a contribution from housing facilities to equipment and actual teaching personnel, in either day or extended-day classes. Use of common facilities, such as fairgrounds, test plots, and equipment can be cost-cutting for both cooperators, as can use of qualified persons as teachers and community workers. An inventory of all possible cooperating agencies may be a result of the advisory committee's work.

Sharing of programs with other junior colleges needs to be planned ahead, and articulation with the cooperating institution established. A student could take a majority of courses at one institution and transfer to another for the courses not available at the first institution.

In summary, it is highly recommended that in attempting to meet the comprehensive educational needs, the rural community junior colleges explore various ways of cooperation and coordination. Through consortiums and other relationships, they may share staff, facilities, equipment, and know-how.

Conditions demand that there be cooperation and correlation among all of the many different sectors of society that have a direct concern with occupational education. Closer liaison among the various levels and agencies of government as well as industry, the councils, unions, and the associations must be obtained. Teachers of occupational programs should work in business and industry for occupational competancy.

Cooperation and articulation among educational organizations is absolutely necessary if the rural junior colleges are to achieve their goals.

Society may no longer afford, nor tolerate, each educational enterprise going its own way. Two or more colleges, junior and senior, must join forces. Several rural community junior colleges banded together to form a common task force may do a better job at greater economy where not one might go it alone.

The Big Ten universities in 1956 created the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC), the nation's best common market in education. The CIC has developed into a strong educational combine through which programs, faculty, students, and ideas are shared. The time is ripe for such cooperation among community colleges.

Staffing the Rural Community Junior College

The criteria for staffing in the rural junior college are essentially the same as the requirements for staffing any effective program in occupational education, regardless of the location. That is, the teachers must be well-qualified practitioners of their teaching art with occupational competence in the field that they are teaching. In addition, they should have recent and appropriate experience in the occupation which they choose to teach. While these general requirements are valid for staffing at most levels of occupational education, the problem frequently lies in attracting adequate numbers of qualified staff to rural areas.

It is frequently difficult to attract certain kinds of staff and faculty from the urban areas. Many times, potential faculty members who have backgrounds in the city refuse to leave the cultural advantages of the metropolitan area to move with their families to a more isolated rural area. This is particularly true in the case of very remote areas located considerable distances from metropolitan areas.

Another somewhat unique staffing problem found in the rural setting is in the lack of "part-time" staff resources available in the rural areas. In the urban setting, it is many times possible to implement a variety of part-time or evening programs in occupational education by using teachers from business and industry. Generally, business and industry are happy to cooperate by suggesting employees who might like to teach on a limited part-time basis in the junior college occupational education programs. This provides a great advantage in staffing in that highly qualified instructors are available on a short-term basis without having to make the long-range institutional staff commitments necessary for permanent teaching faculty. In addition, it is generally easy to recruit part-time technical specialists to teach highly specialized programs of short duration. Because of the general lack of a wide variety of business and industry in the rural setting, the part-time staff resources available to the rural junior college are generally quite limited. This means that the rural junior college must depend more upon its own full-time teaching staff and, therefore, the institution does not have as great a potential for providing special short-term training programs. It is highly desirable that teachers of occupational subjects periodically return to business and industry (quite often in the summertime) so that they may maintain a current knowledge of new trends in their fields of expertise. In addition, many teachers not on twelve-month contracts find it necessary to work

during off-quarter or during the summer. Because of the limited number of industries or businesses which might employ teachers in the rural area, teachers must leave the institutional setting and go to the location where employment opportunities may be found.

Another consideration for staffing in the rural junior college concerns professional improvement programs for faculty and staff. In an urban setting, one may find a number of educational institutions which provide professional upgrading programs, opportunities for further graduate work, etc., for teachers who wish to continue their education and upgrade their professional competencies. In the rural area, however, the number and access to other educational institutions is generally limited. This means that special consideration must be made for professional staff improvement opportunities.

Problems in Staffing Nonurban Junior Colleges—The following problems are based upon the assumption that the primary objectives in staff recruitment for instructors in occupational programs is a thorough knowledge of the subject to be taught and extensive, full-time working experience in the field. The college must have supervisory staff to provide preservice and in-service training in teaching methods. Formal college training, although very desirable, is of secondary importance when hiring instructors to teach in occupational programs. The salary schedule must provide a method of equating work experience with college preparation so that the instructor of occupational subjects will not be penalized because of the lack of formal academic preparation.

The following situations contribute to the problems of staffing rural junior colleges:

1. *Many qualified people want to live in or near large population centers.* They often claim such advantages as higher salaries, opportunity for professional growth, better schools for their children, large shopping centers. However, there are also many people who wish to leave the city. These persons can be reached by placing advertisements in the classified columns of large city newspapers. This is found to be a very successful method of recruitment. Advantages are stressed such as low-cost housing available, excellent recreational possibilities, a more relaxed pace of living, a wholesome climate for children, competitive salaries, fringe benefits, etc. Many excellent instructors can be found in the local area or in other small cities:

(a) These people want to live in small towns and are more likely to remain.

(b) If they are from the locality, there is no housing problem since they generally own their own home.

(c) They are often better qualified since they must know the entire field of work. Large city workers are often highly specialized in a phase of their field.

(d) It is easy to judge their qualifications. They can be observed over a period of time and their references are easy to check.

(e) They usually have good working habits and are more faithful to the college.

2. *Suitable housing is often a problem in the rural areas.* The recruitment of staff can be made easier if the college will assume some of the responsibility in this matter. This problem can be overcome by:

(a) Advertising for rental property for faculty

(b) Encouraging realtors to list property with the college

(c) Purchasing some houses

(d) Having the building trades students build modern houses for a major phase of their shop activity. These houses are kept by the college and rented to faculty.

3. *Salaries are often lower in the rural junior colleges.* This gap is being closed. However, even if the salary differential is significant, recruitment need not be a major problem if the advantages are stressed. And if the major recruitment effort will be in the smaller towns or cities, there will probably be a salary advantage.

4. *The claimed lack of opportunities for professional growth.* Better highways have brought the rural area closer to the large urban centers. However, the college can do much to remedy this situation by sending their teachers to

meetings, workshops, and seminars at college expense. The budget for such activities should be as generous as possible. The state universities and colleges will usually schedule extension courses on the campus of the rural junior college.

Many manufacturers and distributors are happy to send their field representatives to the area and use the campus facilities for workshops.

The Rural Community Junior College in a State System

Today's world is characterized by rapid change. The community junior colleges find that what they did yesterday will not suffice for today, and what they plan for today will not accommodate the needs of tomorrow. They fret because of state control. Indeed it can be frustrating when the educational need can be demonstrated and the community colleges are able to be responsibe to this need, only to find themselves thwarted by hurdles erected by the state. The state board on the other hand, or the executive director for the state system of junior colleges is merely satisfying requirements expected of that agency by the legislature by each recognizing that the community college is not helped in its attempt to satisfy fast moving needs.

It is the responsibility of each state to guarantee:

1. That the people be provided with opportunities for quality education
2. That the opportunities are equally available to each individual, whether he lives in the urban or nonurban area and without regard to color, creed, or socioeconomic position
3. That the resources of the state be allocated so that these goals are used with the maximum of efficiency and economy.

A report of the Educational Testing Service states: "American majority opinion seems to be fairly well convinced:

". . . **Education is important:** It is the principal determinant of individual and social progress.

". . . **Education should be dynamic:** It should incorporate as does the society of which it is a part, the rapid developments of our time in scholarship and technology.

". . . **Education should be democratic:** It should be available to all early and continuously and it should provide for individual differences and individual development."

It is often stated by community college administrators that local boards should retain the maximum possible autonomy subject to minimum state standards. There is consensus that community colleges be governed at the local level by local boards of trustees.

C. Wayne Hall, writing in the March, 1968, *Junior College Journal* [11] stated that the chief functions of the state director of junior college education should be to serve as a principal state coordinator of and as key state spokesman for community college education. In carrying out these functions, the state officer's major responsibility should be to design and implement a community college master, or long-range plan. This plan should be developed in conjunction with an overall state plan for higher education to provide for appropriate articulation with the state's total educational process. The state office should maintain a balance between state coordination and control on the one hand, and local control and autonomy on the other. It should have the responsibility of bringing together in productive harmony the values of statewide coordination with the vigor of local control and responsibility.

It is clear that the local community college cannot go it alone, but needs the support from a strong and able state office. This must be coupled with the fact that the community college governed by an elected local board will be more responsive to the service area education needs and in a better position to understand prospects and limitations of community college education. The ideal arrangement is for the state to offer coordination support, including financial backstopping.

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APPENDIX A

The Survey of Rural Junior Colleges

The AAJC National Advisory Committee on Rural Junior Colleges developed a questionnaire which was mailed to 674 community junior colleges meeting several of the criteria for rural junior colleges. Returns were received from 515, which constituted a 76.41 per cent return. All but 76 of the total were located in a population area of less than 100,000. The 76 colleges located in population densities of 100,000 and above were excluded, being considered as urban colleges. The analysis of the returns which provides the background for the description of America's rural junior colleges is based upon 439 nonurban institutions located in communities of not more than 100,000 population.

APPENDIX B

INFORMAL QUESTIONNAIRE MAILED TO TWENTY URBAN COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

Twenty college presidents of large city (over 100,000 population) community colleges selected at random from the *1968 Directory of Junior Colleges* were asked by letter:

1. Approximate 1967–68 operating cost per FTSE.
2. Identify the two most critical problems in your junior college.

A personal letter soliciting their cooperation resulted in 19 responses. The one not responding was interviewed by telephone resulting in 20 responses, or 100 per cent return.

The total college enrollment of the 20 was 148,187. They were taught by 7,191 instructors—a ratio of 20.61 students to 1 instructor.

The median annual operational cost per student was $1,000.00.